

The National Geographic Magazine

AN ILLUSTRATED MONTHLY



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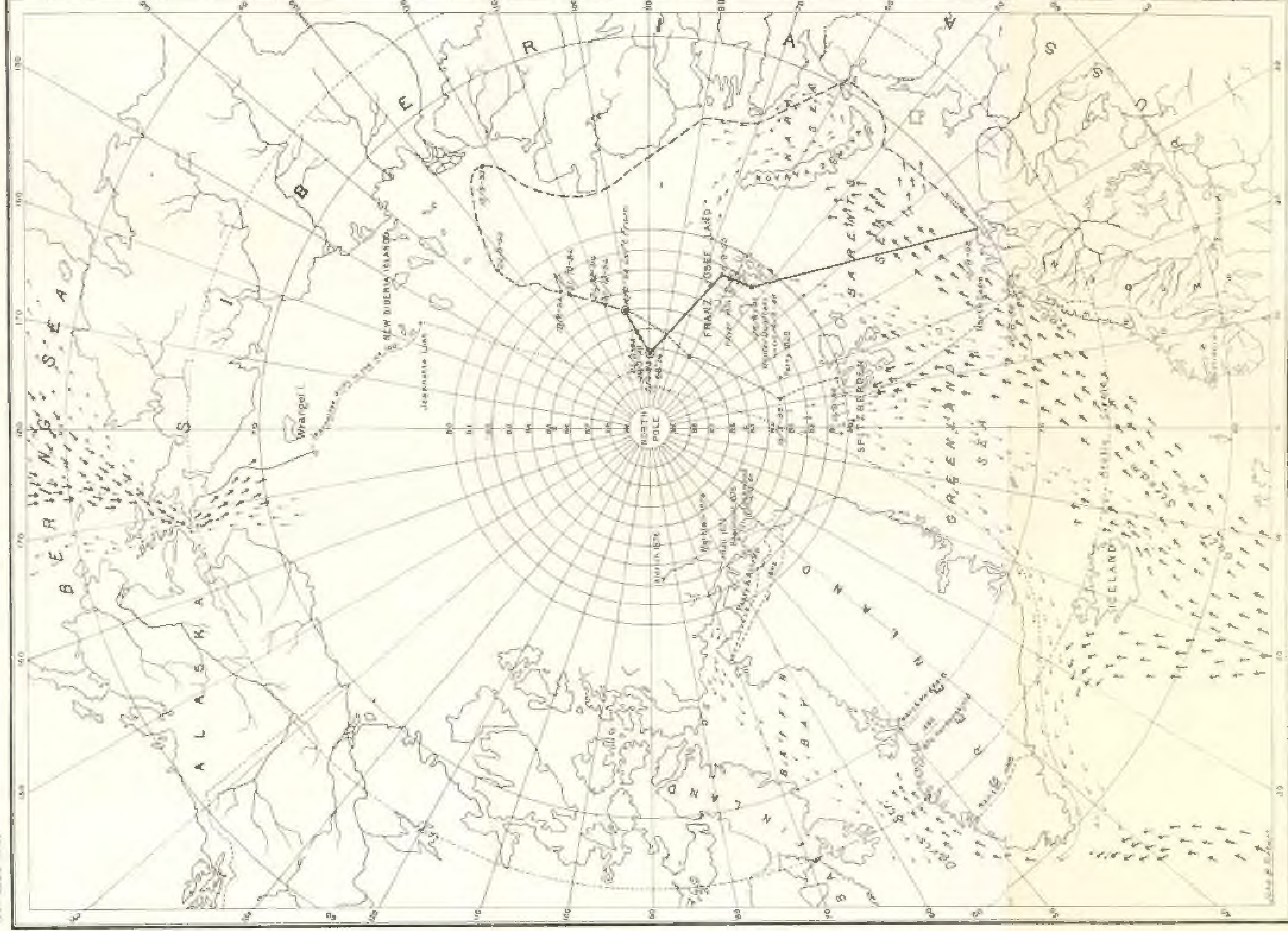
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THE ARCTIC REGIONS
SHOWING ROUTES TRAVERSED BY THE NANSEN EXPEDITION

1993-1994

-----Return of *Crinum* up to the living thicket (4/9) for the dead thicket and field

..... $\Delta G_{\text{f}}^{\circ}$ for H_2O is -237.2 kJ/mol and $\Delta G_{\text{f}}^{\circ}$ for H_2O_2 is -132.9 kJ/mol .

_____ Date of birth of the learner _____

— 11 —

此書實為不可多得之寶

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} \right) = \frac{\partial L}{\partial x}$$

THE National Geographic Magazine

Vol. VII

OCTOBER, 1896

No. 10

CALIFORNIA

By the Hon. GEORGE C. PERKINS,

United States Senator

The Californian is never at a loss for some good words for his state. If he is a pioneer he has wrought at the foundations and rejoices in the rise and progress of a commonwealth having now more than fourteen hundred thousand people. The Argonaut did not much concern himself with the geographical greatness of the future state. He did not even know that there would be a state. There was the great outlying territory of Alta California, stretching along for more than nine degrees of latitude and broadening inland to the crests of the Sierra 250 miles or more, an area that today contains 156,000 square miles, or more than 99,000,000 acres, constituting the second largest state in the Union. He knew little of the coastline, with its indentations a thousand miles in extent, as he sailed into that magnificent bay after his voyage around Cape Horn, and he knew less if, after the long trail overland, he looked down from the top of the Sierra on the great valleys that lay between the mountains and the ocean.

The Spanish dominion, which lasted for 53 years, did not concern him much, since it left few vestiges of civilization. Mexican rule in Alta California was little more than a continuation of that of the mother country. The missions founded by the Catholic fathers constituted a chain of settlements from the bay of San Diego to the northern limit of the bay of San Francisco, each one making a little garden spot in the uncultivated waste. They founded no towns and built no cities. These missions in the height of their prosperity contained 24,000 Indian neophytes, possessing several hundred thousand cattle, 135,000

sheep, and 16,000 horses, and harvesting annually about 75,000 bushels of grain. Their decadence began when they were secularized by the act of the Mexican Congress, and that decline has not been arrested to this day. In the solitary places near where the fathers wrought there are now flourishing towns and cities, and the picturesque ruins of these old missions are among the treasures of the land.

The new era in the history of California began on July 7, 1846, when the American flag was hoisted at Monterey by Commodore Sloat. The discovery of gold followed on January 19, 1848, a month before the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo was signed and five months before Americans had acquired their title to California. Henceforth there were to be a new people, new laws, and new institutions. A few months after the discovery of gold 20,000 pioneers started on the long overland journey from the banks of the Missouri to California. Five thousand fell by the way through disease and hardships or were slaughtered by Indians. Scarcely less than 20,000 went by water, either around cape Horn or by way of the isthmus of Panama. In a few months 100,000 Argonauts were in California. Twenty-five years after that date \$1,000,000,000 of gold had been taken out of the mines of the state. A stream of gold was poured into the Federal Treasury during the civil war, and there was another blessed outflow into the treasury of the sanitary commission for the relief of friend and foe alike, of the Gray as well as of the Blue.

For the first twenty years in the history of California the only mode of transportation after leaving the navigable rivers and the coast, aside from walking, was by stagecoach, wagon, pack-mules, and broncho horses. In Sacramento and Marysville, the two principal steamboat landings, it was a daily occurrence to have depart at break of day fifty or more stagecoaches and wagons loaded with passengers bound for the different mining towns and camps in the foothills and mountains. The return stages were so scheduled that they arrived back late in the afternoon or evening, and, with fresh exchange of horses, would be ready to leave again the following morning.

The early stage-driver in California was perhaps the most unique and was certainly one of the most important personages in the community. His social standing and influence were rated in about the following ratio: For a two-horse stage-driver to those of the sheriff; a four-horse stage-driver to a member of the legislature; a six-horse stage-driver to a mayor or governor,

while the driver of an eight-horse stagecoach upon a popular route through several flourishing mining camps would not have surrendered his place, with its influence and dignity, for a seat in either house of Congress. The teamster also was a very important personage, and the driver of an eight- or ten-bell mule team, with a single line, considered his position and importance quite equal to those of the superintendent of a railroad. I speak advisedly, for I have been honored with the experience.

Many of the richest mining camps could be reached only by long and circuitous routes, following up the forks and branches of rivers and creeks or over pathless hills and mountains. There being no roads or trails, the only manner in which supplies of provisions, clothing, and tools could be sent into the camp was upon pack-mules. These animals were loaded down with from 250 to 400 pounds of freight, which they carried upon their backs with apparent ease, crawling around steep points, over sliding earth and rock, where it seemed almost impossible for a man to walk. The pack-trains numbered from 50 to 100 mules in a train, each one in a single file, following the "bell leader," which was usually a broken-down, white horse that carried no load, and was directed by the owner of the pack-train, who also had a half-dozen or more Mexican vaqueros to assist in loading and unloading the mules; these brought up the rear of the caravan and saw that none of the train stopped by the way. Arrived at its destination, the cargo of freight was delivered at the mining camp, and the return train took back to the valley letters for the dear ones far away and gold dust to the merchants to pay for the merchandise and freight.

But no prosperous state was ever built over gold and silver mines. These were only a single element of future prosperity. The Argonaut had not come to build, but to find treasure for another and, as he thought, a better land; but these men were unconsciously making ready for the new commonwealth. Civilization could not survive without the state. There must be law and order, security for life and property. There must be organized society, or there would be chaos. Then the pioneers became builders. The bad element must be restrained and the good must have protection. There could be no permanent society without homes. California was no longer a barren land. Pioneers here and there had cultivated a few acres as a sort of hearthstone. They had begun to make places beautiful as the garden of the gods. The land seemed to look up and smile when

touch'd by the various implements of cultivation. There was verdure in the desert. Wheat was no longer brought from Chili for bread. The wheat-fields of California began to wave in the morning and evening breeze.

The discovery of the agricultural capabilities of California was greater than the discovery of gold. Men ceased to talk about a worthless country. The land was vital with the elements of hidden fertility. There came a day when six hundred ships were not enough to carry the surplus wheat crop of the state to foreign lands. The whole country from not producing sufficient to feed 100,000 Argonauts at home was now producing enough to feed more than a million people abroad, and the capacity of the state to-day is sufficient to sustain ten millions.

Nor has the mineral industry become obsolete. If the testimony of mining experts is to be taken, there is more gold in the placers and quartz mines of the state than all that has ever been taken out; but the products of agriculture, of which there was once no promise, have annually for more than ten years past exceeded in value one hundred million dollars, although they have as yet reached only the first stage of development, while the annual production of gold and silver amounts to less than twenty million dollars.

But these are not all the marvelous industrial changes that have been wrought. The Mission Fathers adopted a primitive system of agriculture. They selected stations near the ocean, where the moisture was greatest and where there were living streams for artificial irrigation. They cultivated no crops that they could not water when the rains had ceased. They brought the olive and the vine from Spain and naturalized them in their gardens. The orange from Seville also sometimes bloomed and fruited there, but there were no blossoming orchards beyond, and no vineyards ripened the grape under the long summer sun. The native Mexican cared for none of these things; he was content with his jerked beef and his tortillas. Fruit was reserved as the luxury of those who cultivated it in consecrated gardens. It has been recorded that many a pioneer was ready to exchange a silver dollar for an apple. The orchard and the vineyard became a necessity. What was good in the old homestead ought to be good about the new one. Seeds were sent in letters; cuttings and small fruit trees came as the most precious freight of the early steamers by way of the isthmus. Orchards began to blossom in the valleys, and the vine made many little patches

of green on the hillside. The wild vine was found climbing many a tree in the ravines and along the brooklets of the Coast range, and it could not be otherwise than that better ones would take kindly to the soil and give abundant fruitage. The best were brought from Spain and the wine districts of southern France. The mongrel and foxy grapes that suited eastern palates did not win any place in the viticulture of the state. The motto of the Californian everywhere is, "Get the best." After the vineyards of Spain and France had been laid under contribution, princely Tokays and mellow Muscats, with more than twenty other semitropical varieties, began to crowd the home markets. The wine grape climbed the hills and made the claret that was sold under a French label to thousands of eastern consumers. Eighteen million gallons of wine were the product of a single year. Grapes from these vineyards were shipped to every large city of the Union. More than 150,000 acres are now covered with vines in California and the average product for an acre is nearly double the average product of the vineyards of France and Spain. For many large areas the average product is 12,000 pounds an acre, while in special instances the product reaches 20,000 pounds per acre. Beyond all other states of the Union, California is the land of the vine. More than two thirds of the arable land of the state is suitable for viticulture and other fruit culture. There is more land in this one state suitable for the production of raisin grapes than there is adapted to that culture in Spain. When the Muscat began to hang in golden clusters and to turn into raisins on the vines, there was the first suggestion of the great raisin crop that could ultimately supply every market of this country. That the raisin product now falls short of this is because of the keen competition with the crop of Spain, that is produced for less than one-half the outlay for labor that the same production costs in California; but layer for layer and box for box, these domestic producers challenge for quality the best in the world. A small industry became a great one by beneficent protection. More is the pity that any part of it should have been withdrawn until these pioneers had fought out the battle for every home market in the land. The raisin product of the state last year was not less than 54,000,000 pounds. Not only is California golden-sandaled, but the very sun in the heavens turns her fruits into gold.

Such a miracle of transformation was wrought in southern California as had not been witnessed beyond her borders. The

dry land that had become dust under the hoofs of famishing cattle took on perpetual verdure when the streams were trailed over it, and the orange blossomed and fruited under a semi-tropical sun. Towns sprang up and cities were built largely from the proceeds of this citrus industry. Water was impounded in the mountains or was recovered from sunken streams in the plains. The desert became more than a garden. A great citrus product soon to rival that of Florida was the promise of the future. How has it been fulfilled? More than 8,000 carloads of oranges were shipped overland as the product of the season of 1894-'95. Not less than 14,000 acres have been planted with lemon trees, with the certainty that when the maximum of this branch of citrus culture shall have been reached, this fruit will compete for the first place in all the leading home markets of the United States. Of deciduous fruits altogether 4,435 carloads were shipped overland in 1895.

The olive took kindly to the soil. There was, in fact, no product of Spain or of any other country about the Mediterranean that could not be duplicated in California. The fig ripens as it does about the borders of the Adriatic, while of prunes more than 32,000,000 pounds represent the annual production of the state. With wine to make his heart glad, oil to make his face to shine, and honey to sweeten his life, the Californian may speak with enthusiasm of all this wealth of resources. Then there is \$100,000,000 invested in the dairies of the state, and 40,000,000 pounds or more represents the beet-sugar product of the state for the season of 1894-'95—an amount larger than the aggregate production of all the rest of the country.

Passing from these details of production, it remains to be noted that California is the most picturesque state in the Union. This wealth of scenery can never be obscured. There is the great Sierra range stretching along the eastern boundary for 500 miles, having a width of 70 miles and summits ranging from 7,000 to more than 14,000 feet. Nineteen of these mountain peaks rise to the height of 10,000 feet, and seven of them rise still higher, until mount Whitney wears the crown, rising into the heavens to the height of 14,900 feet. Some of these summits are still warm with volcanic heat. There they stand, white-headed, with glaciers moving and grinding along their flanks, as if a thousand years were but as yesterday, letting loose the mountain streams that go singing down to the sea. There is the divine sculpture of the rocks, the lakes that mirror these eternal ramparts, the

down and leave the mountains, and the season is renewed, every

fir tree with its balsam, clean and solitary, it is on the level of
to me for his heaven; there are the cedars more stately than
those of Lebanon, and pines that were doing long their cones long
before the first white man had set foot upon the great west.

If we take of all this reserve of natural wealth any need, it is
by invention, by speech! Hardly an eye rests on our level plain,
on these vine forests. There is the great solitary ocean, free
from dust, with pure water flowing out of the granite, and an

and not solitary, but are rich in forest and animal life. I see

of caves and caverns. There the sunflower, yellow petals,
and the snow plant, red as blood, springs in a day to great beauty
out of the mists of the receding waves of snow. There are the
valleys repose in bowls with mountains for walls. There, 8,000
feet above the level of the sea, to make Lake Tahoe, more than 20 miles
long and 1,500 feet deep and more than five hundred lakes and
mirrors the flowing settlements that rise above them. Here
are the great reservoirs that send their waters down to fertilize
the hot valleys below. More than 4,000,000 acres of land are

great reservoirs that are held in check by these great forests, so
that there is neither wasting flood nor withering drought.

of the world. From the peaks of the earth in a minute to see the
world, the world of Yosemite, which no artist can paint and no
pen can adequately describe. They would look up to the heights

they are set at last and by the plant rows of the setting sun in

contending whether they save majesty our valleys of nature the crest of the earth and fallen sheer of an 4,000 feet, clearing the granite on either side as a wall, of which the glaciers have flowed and eroded, plain or and polished the granite on either side, and the Yosemite valley is one of the most spectacular of the world. Cathedral squares and domes are there for the worship and the towers are carpeted for the rising. Out of the valley a little way he will come upon groves of redwood, the largest of which he will find by actual measurement to be 350 feet high and more than 30 feet in diameter. Away to the north in the same great Sierra range is Mount Shasta, 14,442 feet high, wearing a gleaming mantle of white snow set there as a great white dome for the coming judgment of the world.

Shasta is the wealth of the picturesque of the North. The only the Coast range that runs the great valleys on the north side, taken here and there, but extending parallel with the Sierra for hundreds of miles. For a part of the way there is a line of coast ranges including such beautiful valleys as the Santa Clara, Sonoma, and Napa, presenting a series of low ridges that are untraced on the Pacific coast for quite picturesque effect. Here the ridges and the prime come so perfectly in a line the vineyards that cover up the mountains in some places to their summits.

sent late in the season to New York and other eastern markets.

It is in the part of the Coast range extending from Marin county to the northern corner of Mono county, an elevation of about 6000 miles and averaging a mile 20 miles in breadth, and only there, in the world that the redwood, *sequoia sempervirens*, is to find the first in the history of the world. The Coast range, for the area covered, probably the most valuable timber tree in the United States. It belongs to the order of the oak, lacking the pungent odor of the white cedar, but representing a mixture of the history in symmetry of form and in size, which, as the redwood is cut, is less than the redwood species, the *sequoia gigantea*, which is found nowhere else but on the western slope of the Sierra in small groves at elevations of from 3,000 to 6,000 feet. These redwood trees frequently attain an elevation of 200 feet and a diameter of from 10 to 12 feet. The average is something less. During the past season a redwood tree yielding 40,000 feet of merchantable lumber, or a full cargo for

county, one of the redwood trees, known as the prominent tree, in the grove, near Santa Cruz is 275 feet high and is 12 feet in diameter six feet above the ground. In the hollow of this tree a study some years ago found a comfortable residence for a winter wolverine. It was in or near this grove that Fremont discovered before the conquest of California and been found since. This great timber tract is within the limit belt of California, and had the picturesque valleys that extend along the base of these wooded mountains have a network of living streams that find their way to the sea. The valleys are dotted with beautiful towns and the landscape is a succession of vineyards and orchards. The redwood besides its extensive use for the interior timber of houses, is everywhere admired for its natural color tones and its growth is not only beautiful but a magnificent tree. The pine and the fir tree, so common in California, are denizens of mountain slopes, but the redwood makes here the exclusive timber of the land in the work.

The Sierra and the parallel coast range include the great and fertile valley of the San Joaquin and the Sacramento, 300 miles long and with a breadth of about 40 miles, making an aggregate area of about 14,000 square miles. Fifty-five years ago the greater part of the land in the San Joaquin valley would have been bought at \$1.25 an acre. Thirty-five years ago there were thousands of acres which the Government had offered at the same price and found no buyers. The parched and dead valley lay there at the base of the mighty Sierra, where which the mountain streams descended, but made no fruitful fields. There were no settlements and towns, no vineyards and orchards, and great wheat fields. From this valley enough wheat was produced this year to supply two-thirds of the consumption of the whole country. From this and the related valleys 2,000,000 bushels of oranges and 400,000 cases of lemons were this season going forward to the foreign markets. Added to this product not less than 400,000 bushels of rice and we come to see the nature of all this wealth of production of the great mountain ranges which send their streams down to fertilize this great valley. From the foot peaks and ridges, to these snow-capped mountains and know that the reservoirs will never fail and that the winter gales that sing in the tops of the fir trees and shake the giant oaks, will serve best to make eternal spring in the valley below. The San Joaquin from the south and the Sacramento from the

as miles long at , averaging 8 miles in breadth. There great
 richest expanse of the west.

There is one other particular in which the natural wealth of
 California surpasses that of any other state. There are more
 than one hundred mineral springs but together possess all the
 qualities that are found in the most notable mineral
 springs of Europe. More than half of the whole num-
 ber that are known to exist in California have ever had any
 scientific description. All known minerals that have any medi-
 cal qualities are dissolved in these waters. Some of these
 springs have more than 1000 fathoms for their curative effects.
 Sulphur, iron, arsenic, and soda are sometimes found in a single
 group of springs, as at the geysers, where the waters boil and
 scathe and roar, sending up columns of steam day and night, as if
 after the great volcanic forces. The health and beauty of the
 land for the California and all of tourist and stranger. Whenever
 they go, on the length and breadth of the state, the scenes
 of striking pictures is everywhere. Nothing is more significant;
 nothing from the winter bloom of gardens, with the influence
 of color and perfume, to the most that are typical of the gold
 and precious stones of the sun and the moon.

There is no other particular that forms a greater natural wealth
 than any other state. Not elsewhere in all the world are there
 so many changes. No one can enter it to get to the bottom
 of this mystery. He will find of the sea, surrounded by moun-
 tains in the mountains, and on the shore page of almost all
 on the on lands in the sea, of so that is out out in the world.

But to some other place: of men in overcoats in San Francisco
 daily, and of the mystery that has gone up to 100 degrees in

THE EARTH AS WE SEE IT

By DR. N. S. SILLIMAN,

*Professor of Geology in Harvard University and Dean of the Lawrence
Scientific School*

The old view that the earth was first set on fire and that on it were all to be old "for aye" has gone the way of many received opinions. In every region which geologists have investigated they have had occasion to witness humeral and profound alterations in the form of the surface which have taken place since man has occupied the earth. They have come to recognize the fact that man has

with the course of nature the operation of many forces, as for a great & increased in energy. This understanding has extended beyond the class of special students of earth phenomena. We find, indeed, in a recent essay as to the influence of man on ter-

restrial the recognition of the historic. So far as I am aware no geologist has yet undertaken to consider the subject with respect

I therefore propose to take up the processes of land erosion from the point of view of the geologist, and to trace back the cause of their actions upon the formation and preservation of the soil. In the treatment of this subject we shall be led to do what is important but as yet unrecognized branch of natural economy which relates to the preservation of the huge values of our natural resources.

In dealing with any group of geological features, it is well to consider at the outset the origin and mode of application of the energy that has served to give them shape. We may therefore begin our treatise with a brief account of the forces which operate in the processes of erosion. So far as respects their origin these forces are essentially simple. They all substantially depend upon solar radiation. Only secondarily and in a very unimportant way are they due to subterranean action or to the attractions of the sun and moon, which give rise to the tides. The average amount of heat received by a square foot of the earth's

surface each year is sufficient to lift a pound of matter to a height of many thousands of feet. If all this heat could be converted into dynamic energy and applied to rendering rock, so to speak, into workable material, the effect would be to break up the rocks in a very rapid manner. It is likely that the process of disintegration would go on at the rate of several feet a year. Fortunately for the earth, this work is so organized that only a small part of this energy actually enters into the processes which are going on at the surface. By far the greater portion is furnished off, in ways that we shall have to note as we turn up other examples.

We shall now consider the ways in which excessive erosion is avoided, and thus be led to see how the enormous force is applied to such work. When the tide of solar energy strikes our sphere, somewhere near one-half thereof is either or less directly intercepted by the atmosphere, and does not penetrate to the surface.

Of that which comes to what is commonly called the radiation into the regions of space. If the air permitted the escape of heat as easily as it does the ingress of that form of motion it is certain that it never would be the relatively high average temperature which it now has.

For that work of erosion which, as we shall see hereafter, is intimately associated with the existence of a process of development.

ture of space, or some hundred degrees below zero on the Fahrenheit scale. Owing, however, to a certain adjustment of the several conditions, the air, far from lowering the average at the surface, but does the outward motion of heat is less than it does its incoming. It is in this way a trap serving to retain the temperature. Thus the surface is in general maintained in a somewhat warmer state than that of the air. In the subsequent evolution of affairs we are now to find the origin of those processes which effect erosion.

Owing to the warmth which the sun's rays give alike to land and sea, the atmosphere next those surfaces becomes rapidly heated and thereby expanded. This process is a static

nature, appearing as in dust storms, water-spouts, cyclones, or

temporary and migratory character; or the ascending movement

and, only north of the equatorial zone. Whether these are great permanent tropical winds, their effect is to cool the air in the tropics. The only thermal lines of the atmosphere are equatorial.

These winds, of sufficient energy to have distinct geological value in a direct or indirect way, appear to be constantly

acting the long winter nights in the region about either pole.

The simplest geological work of the winds is that which is brought about by the friction upon the water surfaces on the earth. For our purpose the principal result of this friction is the formation of waves or undulations of water, in which are stored the energy which the winds expend in their working. In their greater form these waves may have a length of several miles, a width of a thousand feet or more, and a height from trough to crest of fifty or sixty feet. Such a wave may store more energy than it be supplied at one time by the gases of the greatest warthog. Conveying the power from a long distance, these waves can run on for hundreds of miles after they have passed beyond the field of air which set them in motion. So long as waves move over a deep sea they have no geological value. The greater part of them die out, gradually converting the energy which they represent into heat that is given out to water or to the air. When, however, the surges of a part of the sea reach a relative velocity they begin to do this work. In a depth of ten to several feet the higher waves drag a little of the bottom, brushing the sea floor lightly in a manner that may move the finer sediment. At a depth of two

or three hundred feet the shore and with each dash or step

as the wave rises at the wall of the surf the sand has so much like the fury of an arm anvil, which is before it everything that is not closely knit to the surface over which it is moving.

As the wave comes into shallow water, and in proportion to

continental shores. The decay of the waves due to wave age, and to

friction has is shown in it so much as by the decrease in the height of the surge as in the shortening of its wind and the slowing of its motion. A good share of its height is preserved in a peculiar

in fact when on a deeper water. The two sides of the wave are thus crowded together, so that at the crest of the wave is relatively undisturbed. For all this, however, the wave when it overturns—that is, when the top, or part least bent back by the friction on the bottom, shoots over the base and falls in the recurrent cataract of the surf—probably never exceeds twenty feet in height and the carrying off in the surging water may be reckoned at less than one-tenth of that which is held by the greater waves of the open sea.

When the wave delivers its smashing stroke in the surf line, and is smashed to it, the power, at least, its energy is expended, and only becomes changed. The bulging mass of water strikes a

outlet effect; but when, as is often the case, the beach is covered with loose stones, these fragments are driven about in a

more than to break fragments which it can drive or warp. In the upper edge of the beach is to be noted by all that is generally the case along rock-bound shores, the swash and scum are waves which gather round the tumbling of the surf and the scum with each stroke to batter the base of the bluff. Although the waves have in all cases lost a large part of their energy, nevertheless they are used to do the work of battering the shore

to accomplish a great deal of erosion. Whenever the cliff is

eroded, as is in the cliff to overhang. In time the weight of the mass which is to be supported, brings it in turn to the head

of the surge.

Whether the level of sea and land remains for a considerable time constant and the shore is not protected by sand beaches, the sea cuts a great pit, bench into the rocks. Even a few centuries will suffice to make the beach a great canal or fjord, as the sea fret. A single geological period may carve, cutting it to a width of one or many miles. In general, however the frequent, we may say the incessant, changes of level, when the sea retires now here and now there on the land surface, and the distance the effect of the marine berching over an area the width of which varies with the steepness of the slope from the interior to the coast.

It is not as yet possible for us to estimate the value of time

has been supposed to give it less importance than they did in the earlier stages of the science. In my opinion they have seriously underestimated its importance. That it is of much value

the shores in very recent times. To limit ourselves to coasts

the United States, we may instance the southern borders of the territory of Oregon in Massachusetts, where since the settlement of

years has amounted to five or six feet. On the corresponding shore of Martha's Vineyard the recession during the last forty years (as has been shown by the surveys of Assistant H. L.

of three feet per annum. It is probable that the growth of the sea on this part of the coast is averaging three feet since the

On ordinary rock shores the rate of wearing is relatively small, but it is certainly variable in amount, but where the waves have a fair chance to assault the land it is always considerable. Al-

we must reckon the year of the sea at a mean of two feet per century. Computing at a thousand years, the time that has elapsed since the first set of the last glacial period passed from these shores, the total amount of the coast erosion should average two hundred feet. During a period of one hundred thousand years—a very brief age in the history of the world—the sea and air have worked its way in more than a third of a

be reckoned at less than two to three millions of years ago, the recession of the shore, due to the action of the waves, may easily be estimated at several miles. Taking now the coast line on the eastern border of the United States into consideration, we see that the sand beaches, owing to their regular endurance of wave-action, which we have discussed elsewhere, have an important restraining effect on the process of marine erosion. Making allowance for this protective work, it remains clear that the effect of ocean waves is to wear back the shorelines into the land, and this at a rate which is a geological process may be termed rapid.

As geologists find that low shores, bordered by the sea, have been cut in the hard rocks, they have generally underestimated the value of wave-work, but in forming their opinion they have not noted the important fact that the coast lands are constantly changing their positions in relation to the sea level. Every step

the shore lands are ceaselessly and at times suddenly moving upward or downward. Even those coasts which now appear to

sink or rise, are the result of the so perpetual swayings of the coastlines is to distribute the denuding action of the waves over a wide zone, extending along the coast of the great lands from a level much above that of the present shores to a position far higher than that which they now occupy. In some instances, where the sea has a mind to remain for a long time in contact with the land on one horizontal plane, we note the existence of broad shelves of rock extending outward from the shore-lands, sometimes to the distance of a mile or more. There on the coast of Yorkshire, from Whitby southward, a somewhat level, with its surface just above low tide, extends seaward from the foot of the towering cliffs for an average distance of more than a mile, presenting a level surface, notwithstanding the great power of the sea. In general, we may say of the eastern coasts of North America that the level of marine work are viable to a height of several hundred feet above the plane of the mean, and that there is good reason to believe that such elevated work has been done on much of these points a few feet below the sea. When by the upraising of the land ancient sea bases are carried above the limits of wave-action they are quickly worn away by the processes of erosion which are proper to the land. When such beaches are lowered beneath the ocean they are soon covered by

method.

Along the eastern face of North America, from South Carolina

have been worn down to their roots by some process of a purely

systemed southward we have the younger ranges of the Blue

to be, they are relatively still degraded. They are composed

the altitudes of their rocks.

Considering from the point of view of economic interests the

we note that even in historic times it has wrought changes of considerable moment to mankind. Whenever the shores are bordered by very hard rocks or walled-in by sand beaches, the processes by which the land is stripped away and its debris carried into the sea are slow; the destruction is still whatever a long period, and there is no distinct effect in the interest of man. Where, however, the coasts are of soft rocks, the waste is often so rapid, that it may mislead even the most careful observer. This, at the base of marine invasion which is now going on on the southern shores of Newfoundland, that island is likely to disappear in the course of two or three thousand years,

now flood in the shallows which stretch far to the southward of that island, shallows which seem to mark the position of

plained down by the sea.

ced its forerunner in two or three centuries to come. The crystallized rocks are also the seat of a rapid though locally variable

of food-giving capacity has been sufficient to diminish in a

direct assaults of the waves and the currents while the mud is produced or by a combination of substance and wave-action, there seems to be no effective means of protection. The skill of the engineer, applied at great cost, may arrest or delay the loss at points where the safety of harbors or towns is involved, but

to protect the sea margin from wasting where no defenses are needed is even more difficult. Our own coasts, particularly that of New Jersey, are strewn with wrecks which mark the

last waves. At certain points in eastern Massachusetts I have found a wall of stone built so that waves could pass on the sea-shore where the ground was submerged by the retreating of the shoals to keep the sea front with huge boulders drawn

the waves breaking on this artificial beach are landed from the cliffs. It is by giving the sea-gorge a ledge they could for a time be kept from their ravages. Where the waves do not attack the coastline with a height of more than five feet, the expensive barrier appears to be very serviceable, but on the more open shores any mound that could without great cost be placed on the sea-re would be beaten about and rapidly worn to smothered. For the maintenance of the precious land, that seat of all the

more rapid destruction which is brought about by the down-

eroding of the shore lands, we must look to these natural forces

to which nature above the surface of the sea. At present we seem to be in a position where the great sea is evidently in a state of very general equilibrium as regards the sea level have come to a reasonably constant state. The next step may be to consider the general of the continental masses and the fields of the oceans.

The first step in the work of erosion which goes on upon the shores, and which, as we have seen, is due to the action of sea level work, is through the movement of the sea level on the atmosphere in and out effect of the same very, that is to the evaporation and precipitation of water. We have seen the fact

consequence of which is the warming of the air next to earth's surface, an effect which is noticeable in a diminishing rate for a great long distance surface. This action is also attributable to

of evaporation to lift a large amount of water into the air. The

but it probably amounts to not far from an average of 30 inches per annum over the surface of the sea. The greater part of this water after ascending to a height of perhaps 500 feet or more, an average, is condensed and falls back to the surface as rain or snow. In making this current work is done, that is of no geological value. Following the dynamic history of air and of water in its up and down journey, we see that it takes five moments, expressed in terms of energy expressed in heat to lift it for the mile or so of its ascent, and that this energy is reconverted into heat by the friction which the water encounters in falling or by the blow which it strikes when it strikes the surface. Owing to the continuous energy of position which the water has when at its highest point, on account, suffered to lift one ton to a height of two or three hundred feet, when it falls back to the sea, it does no work of lifting or transport. It is as we shall see, quite otherwise when in the downward movement of the water falls upon a low surface.

The wind, it is to be remembered of the atmosphere which creates the waves and thus being in a position to transport the watery vapor from the land to the sea, the sea to the land, and of

the surface of the land. Thus, owing to the fact that the air is more exposed to wind, the power, latent of the water vapor is more favored, and the proportion of rainfall is usually greater than it is upon the surface of the ocean. For a proper the soil, the water used in culture comes down in one of one of three ways—(a) by natural condensation. Dew though it has much recognized importance because of its relation to plant life is only a direct value in the production of land production. It serves to diminish the wearing by favoring in the dry season a the development of a coat of vegetation which in the period of rain protects the earth in a very efficient way from the temporary storms which gather and bring heavy showers. The importance of this form of precipitation is great, but it is estimated that we may with this one be stated out to be 10%.

The normal form of falling water is rain. In this mode of precipitation we assume that the land descending from a considerable height in the form of droplets of curved black, averaging

on their way to the earth, though their momentum is much diminished by the friction they encounter in passing through

on recently levelled earth, we readily see certain in constant course. As the rain comes from the immediate vicinity of the rain, As soon as the soil is disturbed, each stroke tends to break up the clods,

readily borne away by the rills which, if the shower be heavy, quickly form in such numbers as to interfere the surface. In a few minutes these little streams, at first obscure, gather into distinct rills which, with quickly swinging curves, carve out a network of a new drainage system. In the course of an hour or very rapid downhill a bar, a lowed field, in a decade to be not more than a few feet as the hill is levelled, it is not the average slope of land, may have an average of one-half of a foot of its surface being removed to the channels of the stream which is formed. In a day, after a heavy rain, the water on a field which has been a lowed and levelled and there is some but at one or a potential loss in top of a little earlier to grow. We see at once that the natural soil has protected the earth beneath and caused it to be left behind in the process of erosion which has overtaken the soil of the next morning surface.

lived surface bare of vegetation and on a landscape which is

will show the positive influence of the vegetation itself on the

leaves no erosive action whatever. In the forests the mass of
decayed vegetation as it must cause a hole to take in three or four

how over weeks and in such a manner that it removes not a bit
of the soil. On the meadows the saturation of the water is more

which it cannot break, even when gathered into considerable
streams. These fields and meadows have made farmers leading a

an hour, a rate which may be called torrential, may be carried
feet in a burst without notably reaching the soil.

If I were an extreme socialist I should probably not hesi-

nevertheless in which they depart from the rapid degradation

afford to the soil on which their life depends. Interesting as is
our attention to the further history of the rainwater

To be continued

THE NANSSEN POLAR EXPEDITION*

SPECIAL REPORT OF THE HON. FRANK A. MANN

United States Consul at Bergen

On the 17th day of June, 1889, as some of the crew of the *Fram*, while looking out over the ice they discovered a weird figure

and dogs towards the Pole. In a shorter space of time it was Lt Nansen's companion, Lieutenant Johnsen

some days after Nansen's return home. While Nansen did not to be of value to the scientific world and of little value to the world's future efforts in the same direction.

The *Fram*, with a company of thirty men, left Varde, Norway, on the 19th of June, 1889, and sailed for the North Pole.

On the 10th of July, the day after the departure, the ship was found to be in a position that owing to the shallow and rocky nature of the coast they would probably

take a northerly course into the open Arctic Ocean until September 22, when at 74° 50' north latitude and 153° 37' east

longitude they began drifting with the ice in a northerly and northerly westerly direction, according to the plan laid out by Nansen, and by which he hoped to drift near or over the Pole, as was

Frederick expected to reach the eastern coast of Greenland.

and spring. During the summer months they were hindered

* This report, translated from Bergen September 4, has been respectfully placed at the disposal of the National Geographic Society by the Hon. W. W. Lockhart, Acting

by him preserving north, while they continued drifting with the wind.

When the ship was again drifting southward again, Nansen determined that the time had come in which to leave the ship and make a last desperate attempt to reach the highest possible northern latitude by other means. At the same time, he was perfectly satisfied, as the *Fram* was even then at a more northerly position than had been attained by any previous expedition.

Having given the good hand of the *Fram* over to Svendstrup, who had been his companion on his summer expedition, and accepted the offer of Lieutenant Jacobsen, who volunteered to accompany him—he was warned by Dr Nansen that it was at the risk of his life to do so—the two men, on the 14th of March, 1895, at 81° 50' north latitude and 10° 27' east longitude, left the ship. They took with them 38 sleds, 3 sleds, 2 kayaks or covered-covered canoes, food for the dogs for thirty days, and provisions for themselves for three months. From the 14th of March until the 1st of April they struggled onward, making their way on snowshoes or drifting on the ice, either north, east or southerly with loose ice, or by the narrow leads into formations of ice brought over which it was sometimes impossible to traverse the holes and seas, and with the thermometer at a most steadily at 40° below zero, Foulkehoff.

On April 7 the cold began, but when they were laboring toward the ice, there was no prospect of winning to the barriers and to the sea. They were then at 80° 14' north latitude. Dr Nansen put on his snowshoes and took a last reconnaissance to it to the northward. As far as the eye could reach, lay great banks of ice, crevassing before the wind, with no land or any indication of the same perceptible. It was apparent to Nansen that at these circumpolar stations, and with the number of their dogs already decreasing, they had proceeded as far as it was practicable and he therefore decided that they would start upon their return journey, taking a southerly course toward Franz Josef Land, intending to proceed from there to Spitzbergen, where he knew they were sure to find a ship which would carry them home.

They set forth on the 8th day of April, 1895, and on the 11th their way was so poor, with, of course, threw them out of their lead and knocking some sleds, but they bravely went on,

long distances on their snowshoes, and again drifting with the

the external poles back to the northward. Toward the last of June they came up and to make a sort of camp and wait for the ice to break a few miles. Their food was giving out and they

bear went for the assistance. It was a month of hardships but on the 2nd of July they pushed on again with heads afloat toward land, which they sighted the next day, July 3rd, at 82° north latitude.

At that time of the year the ice was considerably broken up, and as it was a waste in the boats, they were obliged to travel

has sighted, and which was reached the 6th day of August, at

to be there on a covered way, to the west of which they found open water, and through this they made their way in a westerly and southwesterly direction until August 20th, at 81° 12' north latitude and 56° east longitude, where they set down their stores—Franklin's and others. When Dr. Nares reached here it was unable to prepare then sails for spending the dark winter months, as it was too late to continue the journey to Ny-Aarsen.

As the Eskimoes and the Polar bears without a roof to cover them, even without fire which they had left in order to limit their requirements to the strictest necessities.

The hut they put up was constructed of stone and turf, covered with walrus skins, and was twelve feet long and six feet wide, with a covering of bear skin. Here they spent the dreary months, depending upon their own resources for food, as their last dog and bear had died before they reached here. They

for them gave out their food to kill the weakest, and after another in order to keep the remainder fresh.

During this terrible winter bear meat was their main dependence—in fact it was two or three hundred bears during their confinement here. The fat was used both as fuel and as food. A hut having been constructed out of the material work of the sleds. They were also obliged to make their own soap by using blubber and water and a lot of fat.

They lived with a supply of bear meat and a few pieces of fish, and as the weather was so bad they could not go out to work or to hunt, so they lived on their own.

they set out for Spitzbergen. On May 23d they came to open

with open water spreading out to the north and west of it, but they concluded to go over the ice to the eastward, into a broad ice-covered strait. When they reached the open land end of this strait they found the open sea to the westward. It was while struggling over the ice off the coast of this land that they came across the Jackson-Harmsworth expedition, which had reached the mainland of the 17th of June, 1881. It was Nansen's turn

Johnsen sprang up, but could hear nothing. In the meantime he searched for the source of the noises and had heard. He had

Jackson's expedition, and their appearance. They prepared at once to take Johnsen and the camping effects with them to

of them of various sorts, which had carried the two men for so many days. They were made of a frame of bamboo, covered with seal skin. One boat had been made by Nansen and the other by Mønstad, the carpenter on the *Fram*. They weighed

poorly covered over, with a lance in the bottom for the rower, and a small opening through which to get at the provisions and a yoke of ice stowed under the bows and stern.

which had been stowed over them continually to keep them

digging the sleds, etc. The only cooking utensil was exceedingly primitive, and at the bottom of it were left to rot a piece of the last meal brought out, a bit of soap, melted salt water, the meat of a young walrus, and a little corn meal. It is said that

the appearance of Nansen and Johnsen as they stood before the English explorers, their beards long and thick, their hair

of the established existence.

most, reached them at Vardø, Norway and on the 30th of the same month the *Fram* came steaming into Narvik, near Hammerfest, and thus the whole expedition was once more on its

without a further rupture.

After Nansen left the *Fram* in Captain Sverdrup's charge, it continued its, on the whole, north-westerly drift, sometimes east-

from west, when it was arrested and forced by charges of powder and so-

On the 1st of October 1895, seven months after Nansen left them, the *Fram* reached her highest latitude, viz., $83^{\circ} 57'$ north

southwards, again, and when the ice broke up this summer of 1896 the most energetic efforts were made to free the *Fram* and get her through the vast fields of ice out to open water. This

no more obstacles between her and a home port. No one had been hurt or injured during the voyage and not a case of scurvy had occurred. Of course, rest required, and the arrangements with

now and then by a feeling of anxiety caused by the ever changing

sales. The electric light, with its whale-oil and greasing apparatus,

and no long to long needed exercise by turning the capstan when

of latitude. During the *Fram's* voyage and progress north

one, which doubts all theories as to a narrow land barrier in the

is ice solid while below it there is a stratum of water showing a

in the upper part of the Polar ice zone.

While many contend that Nansen's theory of a Polar current flowing across the Arctic to the east coast of Greenland seems to have been correct, there are strong arguments against it, as Iversen, who was in command of the *Fram* when she made

government by the war ice. On the other hand, from a look at the chart showing the entire drift of the *Fram*, there would seem to be a reasonable probability that if the *Fram* had taken the course

would have entered the ice field to the northeast of the New Siber-

it is said that Dr. Nansen himself has stated that should he undertake another expedition in that direction it would not be

surface of the ice was about him for a distance of

Whatever may be thought of the wisdom and usefulness of

the minutest details of their undertaking. The fact of these

known wastes of the high latitude, with no expectation of

as their labor. In which, no doubt, their well-known ability as explorers and athletes was a very important factor.

ICE-CLIFFS ON THE KOWAK RIVER

By THOMAS J. C. CASTWELL,

United States Government Surveyor &c.

after a tortuous easterly course of about 500 miles, the greater portion of which is within the Arctic circle, it flows into the Gulf.

During the summer of 1884-85 it was my good fortune to visit this region and to make a personal survey of the stream from its mouth to its head waters. Among the many novel and interesting

features which were encountered there a remarkable series of ice-cliffs observed along the banks of the river about 50 miles from its mouth. These deposits of ice were first seen by some of

the Indians who still found these ice deposits in the form of cliffs.

Ice-cliffs are found are not all lined with ice, and the water-marks on those which are composed of ice and rock show beyond question that the water has never reached a sufficient

At two points the cliffs attain a height of over 100 feet, and the ice-cliffs were superposed by a cover of black, silty ice and

of mosses, grass, and the characteristic Arctic shrubbery, consisting for the most part of willow, aspen and berry bushes, and a dense forest of spruce trees from 50 to 80 feet high and from 4 to 6 inches in diameter.

Where the face of the cliffs was towards the south the upper

great masses of ice, and trees have become detached and fallen on the stream. Where the retreating waters of spring had

at first, passed so it does almost entirely free from any gully substances would be left as a mark, not to mark the spot where

Leaps are a characteristic feature of the region where the ice

flows from the upper river.

An examination of the top of the ice-cliff was very difficult on account of the dense undergrowth and the thick carpet of moss, but on the way I discovered a lake about a mile in extent and situated some 500 yards from the base of the cliff. The water

had decayed vegetable matter on the bottom. A piece of the

material proved to be composed mainly of vegetable matter and, when fresh, emitted a very pungent, disagreeable odor.

The country of the region is mostly rolling tundra, and with numerous small lakes and streams all of which empty directly to the lower river. There is no evidence of glaciers, not so much as elsewhere, and it is not until the first mountain range is reached, a mile or more from the river, that any rocks are seen. Here and there other more rocky are to be found, but of trap, which an examination shows to be a very common rock here, as elsewhere, with such minerals as hornblende, mica, felspar, quartz, etc., present. These rock formations are not at all work in the formation of the upper river region. The formation of the tundra is now, as in the lower country is, however, a geological matter which the writer admits to be unable to track.

Dr. A. W. Greely discusses the Nansen Polar Expedition in the *Geographical Magazine* of September 10, endorsing Dr. Nansen's account and conclusions, but taking strong exception to his leaving the *Fram*.

RECENT HYDROGRAPHIC WORK

The work of the Division of Hydrography by the United States Geological Survey has been increased and reprinted in many by Congress last spring. The reports

between, 1896, are now shown that a large amount of data of more or less value to geographers is being accumulated. This

of the Pacific coast, and of the Atlantic slope. The underground waters also are being systematically studied, the former ones being largely geologic in character. In particular, the work of Mr. William D. Johnson upon the underground waters of western

extension north to the vicinity of Carson City, Kansas,

the nature of the ground water. By using the large amount of data of the city water works to be operated at various rates of speed the ground water has been drawn up, and he has been able to make valuable observations upon the rate of flow and general character of these underground waters. The lack of certainty in the data shows clearly that the problem of the movement of ground water is by no means so simple as it is presented now, but a large amount of detailed work is necessary. The importance of a correct knowledge of this subject can best be appreciated when it is considered that the water supply of a large part of the most fertile lands of the west is dependent upon the

The investigations above mentioned are, however, but a part of those of the Division of Hydrography. In eastern Washington and a recent part of Idaho and Oregon, Professor James H.

himself has carried on a recent measure of the artesian conditions; in North Dakota Professor Eugene J. Leonard has been making examinations of the water supply derived from wells and springs, in Nebraska Mr. H. Burton has been making a geologic study of the areal geology of the vicinities of Lincoln

tion regarding the underground waters, and Professor Edwin H.

particular attention to the numerous correlations in the vicinity of the Mogao County flowing wells, and in the Gao valley Mr.

in connection with the examination of the glaciated area. About twenty-five short papers are now in preparation relating to the

relation of this to irrigation or for power or domestic purposes.

R. H. S.

MISCELLANEA

The September and October of the United States Census of Commerce, to which is added the production of the foreign commerce of the United States, is frequently included with some value in the geographical articles on the foreign trade, commerce, and the production of commerce in Mexico.

The history of the National Geographic Society has now been entered through the historical work of the Hon. Gardner C. Gilman, president of the Society, who has presented to it an interesting set of Souvenir Annals for Voyages from the commencement in 1847 to 1867, inclusive. These 184 volumes cover the world's explorations for nearly half a century and cannot be the most valuable geographical work of the century.

The various advantages granted by Congress for special fast mail service are of advantage to the public but not merely a mere convenience of the mails. In, also in the interest of the public, the fast mail service is now being extended to other in the transportation of passengers. Especially in the case with the Southern railway, the fast mail trains of which consist of the long 40 miles or more in length, now reach the principal points in the South at several hours less time than has ever before been possible.

It is proposed to erect in London a terrestrial globe having a diameter of 24 feet and showing the entire surface on a scale of a mile equal to one to the inch. Every geographical feature of importance will be shown as a name. The United States, from east to west, will measure about 30 feet, and from north to south, about 23 feet, while the entire globe will cover a space rather larger than that of a silver building. The project is a most excellent one and a more remarkable manifestation of the progress of the human mind than can be made. Among the 50 members of the committee, science, and literature who have given it their hearty support are Markham, Murray, Mackie, Lockyer, Bryce, Lecker, Watson, Flower, Crookes, Keadie, and many others equally well known on both sides of the Atlantic. The project is of the greatest educational value and cannot be too highly recommended.



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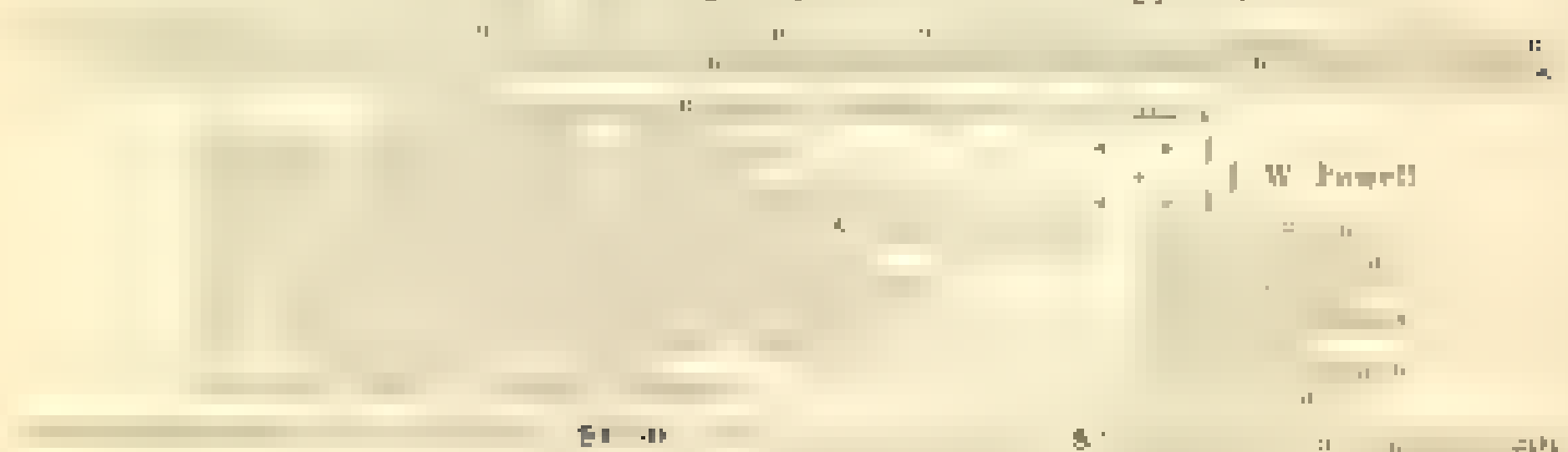
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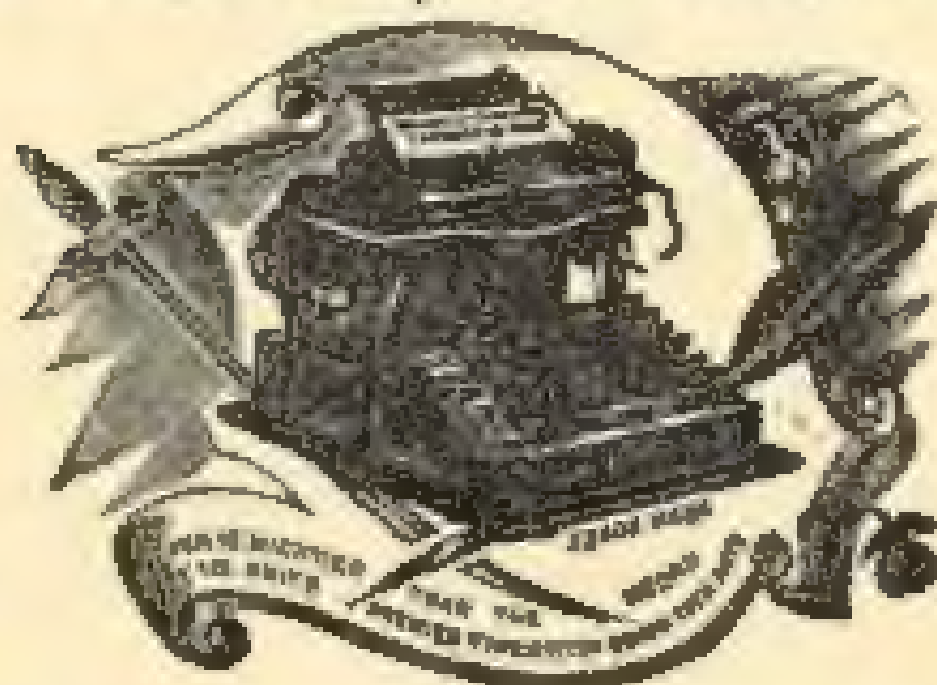
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